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LANGUAGE DEVELOPMENT IN THE SOVIET UNION, A PRELIMINARY SURVEY.

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THE SOVIET GOVERNMENT PROGRAMS AND IDEOLOGICAL CONCEPTS THAT HAVE INFLUENCED THE SOVIET LANGUAGE PROGRAM ARE DESCRIBED, AND THE LANGUAGE DEVELOPMENTS RESULTING FROM THE PROGRAM ARE DISCUSSED UNDER THESE HEADINGS--(1) SOVIET LANGUAGE THEORY, (2) SOVIET LANGUAGE POLICIES, (3) DEVELOPMENT OF THE RUSSIAN LANGUAGE, (4) DEVELOPMENT OF SOVIET MINORITY LANGUAGES, (5) LINGUISTIC RESEARCH, (6) STUDY AND TEACHING OF FOREIGN LANGUAGES AND RUSSIAN, (7) PUBLICATIONS, (8) TRANSLATIONS, (9) MECHANICAL TRANSLATION, AND (10) LANGUAGES AND FOREIGN POLICY. (AL)

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LANGUAGE DEVELOPMENT IN THE SOVIET UNION

A Preliminary Survey

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I. SOVIET LANGUAGE POLICY

General concepts

Before examining the Soviet language program in details, we shall mention some of the government policies and ideological concepts affecting it, since such considerations have probably influenced language development more profoundly in the USSR than in any other country.

About 1956, the Soviet government adopted a series of programs which increased the demand for a knowledge of foreign languages: (1) broader cultural contacts with other countries (cf. Chapter VI); (2) assistance to underdeveloped countries (Chapter X); and (3) increased study of non-Soviet science and technology (resulting also in an expansion of the translation program; cf. Chapter VIII). Furthermore, (4) a program was adopted in 1961 calling for Soviet superiority in all branches of science, which was interpreted as including linguistics. (Chapter V)

Besides these government policies, broader ideological positions in Marxism-Leninism have affected Soviet language development:

(1) Language as an aspect of the culture of individuals. Freedom from capitalist exploitation, it is claimed in Marxism-Leninism, provides an opportunity for the cultural development of all individuals. Among other aspects, this involves the elimination of illiteracy, mastery of one's own tongue, of Russian (for non-Russian minorities), and of a foreign language as part of one's cultural background. (Chapters III-IV, VI-VII)

(2) Language as a social phenomenon. Language is primarily a means of communication and is thus closely linked with the development of society. A common language is one of the major characteristics of a nation. Therefore,

when "oppressed peoples" are liberated, they can achieve true nationhood for the first time, developing their own language and other aspects of their culture. However, this culture must be "socialist in content and national in form", with the Russian language (in the USSR) taking a "leading role". This is the basis of Soviet policy towards the languages of the peoples of the USSR. (Chapter II)

(3) Language as a psychological phenomenon. Human thought processes are impossible without words (spoken or unspoken), and concepts, which are made up of words, reflect objective reality. (This ties in with Pavlovian doctrine on a "second signaling system"---generally rejected in the West---which handles only words, a feature distinguishing human from animal thought.) For decades, this doctrine led to a rejection of Western linguistics, because, it was claimed, the latter concentrated on forms and sounds and ignored thought and meaning (as well as the social aspects) and was therefore incomplete, "idealistic" and "formalistic". (See below) L. V. Shcherba's methodology in teaching languages, dominant until recently in the USSR, was also justified on the basis of this doctrine. (Chapter VI)

Marrism

The 1917 Revolution found two major schools in Russian linguistics: (1) F. F. Fortunatov's "Moscow school", studying comparative linguistics and denounced by the Soviets as "formalistic", and (2) Jan Baudouin de Courtenay's "Petrograd school", interested in phases of structural linguistics and later criticized as "subjective-idealistic". (Bol'sh. sov. ents., 2nd ed., vol. 50, p. 564; vol. 5, p. 366)

These schools were soon replaced by that of Nikolai IA. Marr (1864-1934). Half Scotch and half Georgian, he had been elected to the Academy of Sciences

in 1909 for his work in Armenian and Georgian. After developing a "Japhetic theory" to explain the origin of the Caucasian languages, he announced in 1924 his "new doctrine in linguistics". Basically, it claimed that: (1) speech was preceded by "kinetic speech", consisting of gestures; (2) speech originated with four ritual yells used by medicine men in invoking their totems---sal, bar, yon and rosh; (3) all languages developed from these elements in a certain pattern (the "single glottogonic process") and therefore these syllables are traceable in any language; (4) languages have passed through a maximum of four stages ("stadial development") in abrupt changes linked to economic development, with Chinese "frozen" in the first and the Indo-European languages having reached the fourth; (5) national languages do not develop from a proto-language, but arise from the blending of the speech of the groups, tribes and peoples merging to form the nation.

Thus, the study of comparative and historical linguistics was excluded because they conflicted with points (3) and (5), and were replaced by a search for the "four elements" in various languages. Structural linguistics, with some exceptions, was taboo because of its "formalism" and lack of social content. Thus, grammar and lexicography had to be developed without the comparative approach; etymology was frozen. Despite these limitations, a good deal was accomplished, particularly in studying Soviet minority languages and in fields of Russian linguistics not affected by Marrism, but much of this work had to be done without techniques available in the West.

After Marr's death in 1934, his followers attempted to develop his doctrine further; for example, I. I. Meshchaninov sought to refine the stadial theory by defining seven stages, based on sentence structure.

Stalin's intervention

In 1950, after certain Soviet linguists had attacked Marr's doctrines, a controversy took place in the columns of Pravda, one which was settled by an article by I. V. Stalin himself in the June 20 issue. He rejected Marr's major theories, criticised him on certain ideological grounds (denying Marr's views that language is part of the Marxist "superstructure" and is a class phenomenon), and specifically endorsed the comparative method. Marr supporters were dismissed from key positions, linguistic research was reorganized, and Soviet scholars initiated training and work in the comparative method.

Thus, (1) theoretical linguistics was left nearly a void, and scholars were called upon to develop a new Marxist linguistic theory (which it is felt today will take many years), (2) comparative linguistics was approved, but (3) structural and (4) mathematical linguistics were still proscribed, probably because Stalin had not mentioned them. The first issue of the journal Voprosy iazykoznaniiia (Problems in Linguistics) in 1952 attacked structural linguistics because it ignored the newly approved comparative method and the influence of historical factors, and because it detached thought from language. It also denounced non-Aristotelean semantics, because it denied the bond between thought and reality, and especially because it reduced such terms as "capitalism", "exploitation" and "national liberation movement" to fictions. Mathematical linguistics was not even mentioned.

Recent trends

After Stalin's death, pressures developed for the use of structural and mathematical methods. Cybernetics had been rejected in 1953 as a "pseudoscience" because its biological applications conflicted with Pavlov and its social aspects clashed with Marx and Engels, (Voprosy filosofii, 1953, no. 5,

p. 210-219) but it was made acceptable through the efforts of Academician S. L. Sobolev and others in 1955. (Ibid., 1955, no. 4, p. 136-148) Research on mechanical translation, started in 1954, made it urgent to study the structure of language.

A climax came after N. S. Khrushchev's denunciation of the Stalin personality cult in February, 1956. The July-August issue of Voprosy iazykoznaniiia, while granting that Stalin's intervention was "basically correct", claimed that Soviet linguistic research had been hampered by a "dogmatic belief in the inviolable truth of all the propositions of I. V. Stalin's work." Citing the 1956 Party Congress, which called for the mastery of all that was valuable in non-Soviet science, the journal lifted the ban on mathematical linguistics, regretting that "in Soviet linguistics, not one piece of research had appeared in recent years" in this area. It called for a "discussion" of structural linguistics, during which it published a number of favorable articles, including some explaining what the subject was.

These issues were finally settled on May 6, 1960, when the Presidium of the USSR Academy of Sciences reviewed a report by a committee of leading Soviet linguists and formally approved these methods in its resolution, "On the Development of Structural and Mathematical Methods in Linguistic Research", and reorganized certain divisions of academy institutions accordingly.

Bibliographical notes

For Marr, see: Thomas, Lawrence L. The linguistic theories of N. J. Marr, 1957; Current Digest of the Soviet Press. The Soviet linguistic controversy, 1951. The principal Soviet linguistic journal is Voprosy iazykoznaniiia.

For this, as for all other chapters, the Monthly Index of Russian Accessions provides an invaluable guide to current Soviet literature.

II. SOVIET LANGUAGE POLICIES

Principles

While the dominant language in the USSR is, of course, Russian, 45.3% of the population in non-Russian (94,712,000 out of 208,826,000 in 1959). Over 130 minority languages are spoken, ranging from Ukrainian, the native tongue of 87.7% of 37,235,000 Ukrainians, down to small groups of a few hundred each. (For figures, see Chapter VII.) Many non-Russians, especially in the older generation, know Russian poorly or not at all. By 1939, the Soviets had made Russian a required subject in all schools, regardless of nationality, so that eventually everyone educated in the USSR will know Russian. This is justified on the ground that a universal vehicle of communication is needed. While workers in agriculture can readily get along in their native tongue, when they move to industrial plants (a major demographic trend), knowledge of some Russian becomes essential. As a Soviet source says, "In industry, where people of various nationalities work side by side, Russian naturally proves to be the language of communication of all the workers." (Russk. iazyk v nats. shkole, 1961, no. 6, p. 11) In 1959, 89.8% of Soviet books in technology intended for the book trade were in Russian, while for agriculture, the figure was 60.7%. (Pechat' SSSR, 1959, p. 80-81)

Study of Russian in minority-language schools is also defended on the basis that Russian civilization is higher than that of most of the minorities, and thus a widespread knowledge of it will raise the latter's culture. A Soviet writer describes the "special cultural role of Russian as the language of Russian literature, culture and science, which are world-wide in significance. The Great October Revolution has raised still higher the international

and inter-nationality importance of Russian, the study of which has become the vital concern of all the nationalities of the USSR and is constantly becoming more widespread abroad." (Vopr. iaz., 1957, no. 5, p. 3) Still, officially at any rate, Russification must not go too far; Stalin warned against the twin dangers of (1) "Great Russian chauvinism" and (2) "bourgeois nationalism" on the part of the minorities. (His Voprosy leninizma, 11th ed., p. 474)

Policy towards minority languages

Communist doctrine states that the minorities will eventually be absorbed into a single Soviet people (doctrine of the "formation of a nation"), doubtless all speaking Russian, but that in the meantime the use of minority languages is encouraged as long as anyone wants to employ them.

Czarist policy on questions such as the language of instruction in schools varied, but in general it supported the use of Russian, but, with some reluctance, it allowed the use of national languages in schools. Publication in non-Russian languages was allowed, but government offices, with certain exceptions, used Russian.

Czarist "Russification" policies provoked considerable hostility, and in 1903, the 2nd Congress of the Communist Party (then the RSDRP) adopted a program for the use of minority languages in state schools, meetings, local government and private organizations. After the Soviets seized power, this policy was broadened, especially at the 10th Party Congress in 1921. The minorities were recognized, in theory at least, as separate nations, through setting up "republics" for the large ones (15 "union republics", composing the USSR, and 20 "autonomous republics" at present) and "autonomous provinces" and "national districts" for the smaller ones. Since language was the chief distinguishing feature of a nation, the Soviet government is organized territorially in the first instance on a linguistic basis.

Use of national languages was provided for in the constitutions for these republics, laws being published both in Russian and the local language, and with schools and courts conducted in the native tongue if desired.

Other programs included: (1) eliminating illiteracy (especially for those not knowing Russian) by developing schools and publications in the local language, (2) culture (theatres, literature, etc.) in the minority languages, and (3) training and promoting personnel from the minority groups.

Specific motives for these programs are listed as follows by a Soviet source: (1) elementary democratic rights of the minorities; (2) providing a means of communication, bringing the peoples into social and political life and socialist culture; (3) overcoming illiteracy; (4) enabling individuals to read, write, participate in government, and contribute to culture. (Vopr. iaz., 1960, no. 4, p. 42)

However, allowing minorities to develop their own languages was not to be regarded as supporting unbridled nationalism. The new culture of the minorities was to be "socialist in content and national in form," as Stalin put it in 1925, having in mind the religious and nationalist content of minority education and culture until then. While minorities are encouraged to develop their own languages, it is with the primary aim of furthering socialist construction.

Policy towards a universal language

Marxism-Leninism claims that, after the world-wide victory of Communism, all mankind will eventually become one nation. Lenin pointed out that this process was occurring under capitalism, citing the "melting pot" of New York. An analogy with the Communist doctrine of the formation of a nation would require that there would also be a single world language. In 1925, Stalin denied

this, but in 1930 and again in 1950, he stated that a merging process would naturally develop, unified languages would first arise in various zones of the world from local languages, and these in turn blending into a world tongue, which would be "neither German, nor Russian, nor English, but a new language absorbing the best elements of the national and zonal languages." (His Marksizm i voprosy iazykoznanii, 1950, p. 54)

After 1956, this tenet ceased to be a part of Communist doctrine, though Marxism still maintained a world language would develop. A 1960 statement says that it is now unknown whether this would be (1) an existing language, (2) a mixture of existing languages, or (3) "an artificially created language with a logically impeccable structure". (Vopr. iaz., 1960, no. 4, p. 16)

Although there was an active Esperanto movement in the USSR in the 1920's, Stalin's doctrine made an artificial language unnecessary, and the movement ceased. Since 1956, Soviet sources show little interest in Esperanto, regarding it only as of possible value in studying Romance languages. However, in China, Vietnam and Bulgaria, publications are appearing in Esperanto. (Malaia sov. ents., 3d ed., v. 10, col. 986)

As for "Basic English", it is dismissed as reflecting the "predatory desires of the American bosses." (Bol'sh. sov. ents., 2d ed., vol. 9, p. 306)

Bibliographical notes

Kolarcz, W. Russia and her colonies, 1955; Smal-Stocki, R. The Captive nations, 1960; Tsamerion, I. P. Equality of rights between races and nationalities in the USSR, 1960; dissertations by Donald R. Farmer and S. Shaheen.

III. DEVELOPMENT OF THE RUSSIAN LANGUAGE

Reform of orthography and grammar

Until 1918, Russian orthography was governed by the spelling rules of

IA. Grot (22nd ed., 1916). Reforms proposed by the Academy of Sciences in 1912 were substantially put into effect by circulars of the Provisional Government's Ministry of Education, May 17 and June 22, 1917, and by decrees of the Soviet Government, Dec. 23, 1917 and Oct. 10, 1918, eliminating 4 redundant letters and changing certain pronouns, case endings, etc. (Details are readily available in A.L.A. Cataloging rules, p. 243-245.)

Standardization of the language

As is the case with the French Academy, the USSR Academy of Sciences traditionally registers the correct usage of the language, its first dictionary having been published in 1789-1794, and its first grammar (by Lomonosov) in 1755.

The Russian Revolution and Soviet construction caused numerous changes in Russian, particularly in vocabulary (neologisms, vulgarisms, abbreviations, etc.) but also in grammar, phonetics, etc. Lenin himself protested what the Communists were doing to the language, and over the years the concept of "culture of speech" was developed, and Soviet linguists spent considerable effort on norms for the literary language, stylistics, etc.

After years of work, the Academy released in 1955 a handbook, "Russian literary pronunciation and accent" (reissued in 1959) giving data on about 50,000 words. In 1956, "Rules for Russian Orthography" were issued by the Academy, and in the same year, an orthographic dictionary of Russian was published, listing about 110,000 words with standardized spellings and accentuation in accordance with these rules.

Dictionaries and grammars

The Russian Academy had published dictionaries of Russian in 1789-1794 and 1842-1847, but the dominant one became V. I. Dal's (1801-1872) Tolkovyi

slovar' zhivogo velikoruskogo iazyka (1st ed., 1861-1867; 4th ed., 1912-1914)

and still so valuable that it was reprinted in Moscow in 1955.

A new academic dictionary was started in 1891 and, with interruptions, continued to appear in fascicles until 1937, when it was abandoned because it was limited to pre-Revolutionary vocabulary and thus was out of date.

Meantime, work on another major dictionary---designed more for current use than to set literary norms---was inaugurated in the 1920's; it was published in four volumes in 1934-1940 under the editorship of D. N. Ushakov as Tolkovyi slovar' russkogo iazyka. One of its authors, S. I. Ozhegov, compiled on the basis of this work a one-volume Slovar' russkogo iazyka (edited by S. P. Obnorskii), the first edition of which appeared in 1949, the fourth in 1960. The work by Ushakov becoming outmoded, a new four-volume Slovar' russkogo iazyka, edited by S. G. Barkhudarov and others, was published by the USSR Academy of Sciences from 1957 to 1961.

The academy began work on a new dictionary of the literary language in 1938, the first volume appearing in 1950 as Slovar' sovremennogo russkogo iazyka and the fourteenth (beginning the letter "S") in 1962. In the early volumes, the format was repeatedly changed because of adverse criticism.

Another important dictionary is that of the vocabulary of A. S. Pushkin, founder of the literary language, published by the academy from 1956 to 1961.

Many bilingual dictionaries have been published, both for minority languages (usually prepared with the assistance of local research institutes cf. Chapter V) and foreign ones (the English-Russian one is by V. K. Muller, the Russian-English by A. I. Smirnitsky, continued after his death by O. S. Akhmanova, both dictionaries being revised regularly).

Numerous foreign language dictionaries, especially English-Russian, are being published for fields of science and technology by various Soviet government agencies; some have alphabetical indexes of the Russian equivalents, so that the dictionary may be used in reverse. Some are reprints of dictionaries published abroad, such as U. S. Army dictionaries.

Specialized Russian-language dictionaries have appeared, such as foreign words (Lekhin and Petrov), spherisms ("Winged Words", Ashukin), school dictionaries, etc. Marrism prevented work on etymological dictionaries; if we exclude a 1961 school etymological dictionary by Shanskii, only two etymological dictionaries have been published by the Soviets: one compiled before the Revolution (A. G. Preobrazhenskii) and one prepared abroad (Max Vasmer).

Turning to grammars, authoritative ones were issued by the Academy in 1755, 1802, 1831, and 1852, but then the work lapsed. It was resumed in the 1930's, and the academy finally published a definitive Grammatika russkogo iazyka in 1952-1954 in 2 volumes (3 parts), reprinted with some changes in 1960. However, numerous scientific and school grammars have also been published.

Bibliographical notes

All the above publications, as well as many others dealing with the study and teaching of Russian, are available in the Library of Congress. For a list of major works on the Russian language, see P. L. Horecky, Basic Russian Publications, 1962, p. 175-186. For changes in the language, see A. and T. Fessenko. Russkii iazyk pri Sovetakh, 1955.

IV. DEVELOPMENT OF SOVIET MINORITY LANGUAGES

Nature of the problem

Prior to 1917, the development of minority languages (cf. Chapter II)

had been uneven. Some languages had centuries-old, highly developed literatures, while others were still in a primitive state. Contrary to Soviet claims, nearly all the languages in which publications are now appearing had been reduced to writing, but it is true that only about 15 of them had significant publication programs or were widely read. Many languages had had only three or four books published, and so little was known about most that the Soviets had practically to start from scratch.

A tremendous amount of work was done by the Soviets, at first mostly on an empirical, practical basis, and then more scientifically as research expanded. There were admittedly many mistakes, decisions often had to be made on the basis of incomplete or erroneous information, and opposition often developed on political, religious, linguistic, sentimental or other grounds.

The development of each language had an involved history of its own, but a certain pattern can be distinguished, especially for languages where the Soviets started from the beginning rather than develop an existing written language. The order given below is more or less typical, although there were many variations and certain stages would often be going on simultaneously.

(1) Selection of languages to be established as written ones. This involved deciding which would be written languages and which, unwritten dialects of the written ones; how large a population would justify having a recorded language; and what to do if a nationality was universally bilingual in their own and in a written language (e. g., all the Khinalughs speak Azerbaijani). Thus, all the Soviet languages fell into three groups: (a) the previously written ones, (2) the "newly written" ones, requiring development from the beginning, and (3) unwritten ones, never to be written.

(2) Selection of dialect for the literary language. The basis varied: a lingua franca (e.g. Avaric); the dialect of the largest group (Dungan); that of the most developed area (Uzbek); a mixture of dialects (Bashkir); the only dialect (Yakut); treating two dialects as separate literary languages (Erzya and Moksha in Mordovian); sometimes it is still unresolved (Nogai); etc.

Alphabet

(3) Selection of alphabet. Before the Revolution, alphabets in use (sometimes modified) were Arabic, Armenian, Church Slavic, Georgia, Gothic, Hebrew, Latin, Mongolian and Russian. Under the Soviets, the alphabets (with exceptions) went through stages approximately as follows: (a) reform of existing alphabets, 1920-24; (b) conversion to Latin alphabet, 1924-26; (c) a unified Latin-based alphabet (New Turkic Alphabet, and later the Unified Northern Alphabet), 1926-31; (d) conversion to the Russian alphabet (usually with special letters added for non-Russian sounds, but sometimes with combinations of 2, 3, or even 4 letters to represent such sounds), 1935-1940. At present, all native Soviet languages are written in Russian-based alphabets, except for five with long literary traditions: Lithuanian, Latvian, Estonian, Georgian and Armenian.

Grammars, etc.

(4) Publication of school books in the language, usually the first step for newly established languages. In certain ones (Ostyak, Koryak, Selkup) this is all that will ever be published.

(5) Setting up schools and training teachers in the language

(6) Publication of newspapers and translations, which often necessitated expanding the vocabulary (sometimes quite primitive) and to some extent the

grammar. Although neologisms were sometimes made from existing roots, by employing related obsolete or little-used words, or by drawing upon a classical language (e. g., Arabic for Turkic languages), the later policy was to use Russian loan words (many of them actually international ones), this being justified by the "special role" of Russian. Thus, masses of Russian words entered the languages, and Soviet writers have complained that for some (e. g., Kabardian, Mari, Mordovian, Buryat) this sometimes made the written language unintelligible. (Vopr. iaz., 1960, no. 4, p. 13)

(7) Establishment of orthographic rules. In many cases the phonetic principle (i. e., "write what you hear") was first used, but now it has been replaced by the morphological principle. (English examples: houzes vs. houses.)

(8) Publication of school and pedagogical grammars.

(9) Development of minority-language literary authors and other writers.

(10) Development of norms for the literary language.

(11) Beginning of publication of dictionaries, first small and limited to ones from Russian into the language, but improving in later editions.

(12) Compilation of definitive grammars for each language. Usually in Russian, most of them appeared from the late 1930's to early 1950's.

(13) Comprehensive dictionaries into Russian. A number have now appeared.

(14) Comprehensive monolingual dictionaries. Only about 10 so far.

(15) Etymological and dialectical dictionaries. Work on these is only in its early stages.

(16) Linguistic research will be cumulated in an encyclopedic Languages of the Peoples of the USSR, scheduled for 1967, the 50th anniversary of the Soviet Revolution.

Reversals of policy

The experience accumulated over the decades has led to repeated policy changes. Certain languages have been discontinued, such as when the people was too small (Vespish), when a written language for a separate dialect was found to be unwarranted (Latgalian), when a people universally knew another written language (Itelmen), etc.

The 63 languages now in use in written form are listed in Chapter VII. Languages discontinued under Soviet rule (with dates) are: Aisor, 1958; Baluchi (Latin alphabet), 1936; Bukhara Jewish, 1941; Chinese (Latin alphabet), 1939; Church Slavic, 1954; Gipsy, 1938; Itelmen, 1933; Izhora, 1937; Karaitic, 1936; Karelian, 1940; Ket, 1934; Koryak, 1959; Krimchak, 1936; Kumanda, 1939; Lappish, 1937; Latgalian, 1959; Laz, 1937; Mingrelian, 1939; Nivkh, 1955; Ossetic (Digora dialect), 1948; Persian (Latin alphabet), 1936; Sakha, 1933; Selkup, 1953; Shor, 1942; Shughni, 1939; Talysh, 1939; Tsakhura, 1939; Udehe, 1937; Vespish, 1937. The following were suspended and then resumed: Balkar, 1941-1956; Crimean Tatar, 1941-1957; Dungan, 1939-1955; Ingush, 1941-1956; Kalmuck, 1941-1957; Karachay, 1941-1956; Kurdish, 1938-1955; Yiddish, 1947-1959 (except for one newspaper).

The dialectical basis for written languages had been changed, sometimes repeatedly (Ostyak). Mention has already been made of reversals in regard to alphabets and neologisms. Revisions have often been made in orthographic and grammatical rules, literary norms, etc., as experience accumulated and scientific studies were completed.

Results

The results of the Soviet program for the development of minority

languages have unquestionably been impressive. A large number of books, journals and newspapers are now being published in these languages (Chapter VII). Illiteracy has been greatly reduced. (Literacy throughout the USSR, for ages 9-49, has been as follows: 1897, 26.3%; 1926, 56.6%; 1939, 89.1%; 1959, 98.5%; Narodnoe khoziaistvo SSSR, 1960, p.24.) Although efforts are being made to have the entire minority population ultimately bilingual with Russian the second language, a high percentage of the people in most nationalities still consider their own as their native tongue. (Chapter VII). On the negative side, complaint has been expressed over such points as the "Russification" of the languages, the ruthlessness occasionally shown in imposing changes, and political and religious considerations.

Bibliographical notes

Matthews, W. K. Languages of the USSR, Cambridge, Eng., 1951; Meillet, A. Les langues du monde, 1952; Akademiia nauk SSSR. Institut iazykoznaniiia. Mladopis'mennye iazyki narodov SSSR, 1959; Deshiev, IU. D. Razvitie mladopis'mennykh iazykov narodov SSSR, 1958. Transliteration of Russian-based Soviet minority languages, submitted to the Library of Congress by Boris I. Gorokhoff contains the history of the languages and their alphabets, with proposals for their transliteration.

V. LINGUISTIC RESEARCH

Institutions engaged in linguistic research and their organization

Linguistic research is conducted primarily in (1) universities and pedagogical institutions (Chapter VI) and (2) research institutes, which are not engaged in education, except that some provide graduate training.

Research institutes are organized in a system paralleling the organization of the Soviet Union as a whole, (Chapter II) with institutes in most of the

republics and autonomous provinces, the national organization being the USSR Academy of Sciences. Each of the local institutes concentrates on the languages spoken in its area, compiling dictionaries, grammars, etc.

In the USSR Academy of Sciences, the Institute of Linguistics has the area of general and applied linguistics, Romance and Germanic languages, and USSR minority languages. The Institutes of (1) the Russian Language, (2) Slavic Studies, (3) Peoples of Asia, and (4) Ethnography handle the languages in their respective jurisdictions. Certain other institutes are at work in mechanical translation. (Chapter IX)

Each of the fourteen republic academies (there is none for the RSFSR) has an institute engaged in linguistic research. Thus the Academy of Sciences of the Armenian SSR (in the city of Erevan) has an Institute of Language. The other ones are: Azerbaijan (Baku) Inst. of Literature and Language named for Nizami; Belorussian (Minsk) Inst. of Linguistics named for Lakub Kolas; Estonian (Tallin) Inst. of Language and Literature (this academy also sponsors the linguistic Society of Our Native Tongue); Georgian (Tbilisi) Inst. of Linguistics; Kazakh (Alma-Ata) Inst. of Linguistics; Kirgiz (Frunze) Inst. of Language and Literature; Latvian (Riga) Inst. of Language and Literature; Lithuanian (Vilnius) Inst. of the Lithuanian Language and Literature; Moldavian (Kishinev) Inst. of Language and Literature; Tajik (Dushanbe) Inst. of Language and Literature named for Rudaki; Turkmen (Ashkhabad) Inst. of Linguistics; Ukrainian (Kiev) Inst. of Linguistics named for A. A. Potebnia; Uzbek (Tashment) Inst. of Language and Literature named for A. S. Pushkin.

In the 20 autonomous republics and 8 autonomous provinces, there are 23 research institutes, either under the republic's academy of sciences or

directly under the local government. The following lists the 28 territorial units, the location of the institute, the name of the institute, and the sponsoring body; when no such body is given, it is usually the local council of ministers. ("A. S." means "Academy of Sciences".)

Abkhaz ASSR (Sukhumi) Abkhaz Inst. of Language, Literature and History, Georgian A. S.; Adygei AO (Maikop) Adygei Research Inst. of Language, Literature and History; Adzhar ASSR, none, Georgian being used; Bashkir ASSR (Ufa) Inst. of History, Language and Literature, Bashkir Branch, USSR A. S.; Buryat ASSR (Ulan-Ude) Buryat Complex Research Inst., Siberian Division, USSR A. S.; Chechen-Ingush ASSR (Groznyi) Chechen-Ingush Inst. of History, Language and Literature; Chuvash ASSR (Cheboksary) Research Inst. of Language, Literature, History and Economics, Council of Ministers, Chuvash SSR; Dagestan ASSR (Makhachkala) Inst. of History, Language and Literature named for G. Tsadasa, Dagestan Branch, USSR A. S.; Jewish AO, none; Kabardian-Balkar ASSR (Nal'chik) Kabardian-Balkar Research Inst.; Kalmuck ASSR (Elista) Kalmuck Research Inst. of Language, Literature and History, Council of Ministers, Kalmuck ASSR; Kara-Kalpak ASSR (Nukus) Inst. of History, Language and Literature, Kara-Kalpak Branch, Uzbek A. S.; Karachay-Cherkess AO (Cherkessk) Karachay-Cherkess Research Inst. of History, Language and Literature; Karelian ASSR (Petrozavodsk) Inst. of Language, Literature and History, Karelian Branch, USSR A. S.; Khakass AO (Abakan) Khakass Research Inst. of Language, Literature and History; Komi ASSR (Syktyvkar) Komi Branch, USSR A. S.; Mari ASSR (Ioshkar-Ola) Mari Research Inst. of Language, Literature and History; Mordovian ASSR (Saransk) Research Inst. of Language, Literature, History and Economics, Council of Ministers, Mordovian ASSR; Mountain Altai AO (Gorno-Altai) Mountain Altai Research Inst. of History, Language and Literature; Mountain

Badakhshan AO, none, Tajik being used; Mountain Karabakh AO, none, Armenian and Azerbaijani being used; Nakhichevan' ASSR, none, Armenian and Azerbaijani being used; North Ossetian ASSR (Ordzhonikidze) North Ossetian Research Inst., Council of Ministers, North Ossetian ASSR; South Ossetian AO (Tskhinvali) Research Inst. of South Ossetia, Georgian A. S.; Tatar ASSR (Kazan') Inst. of Language, Literature and History, Kazan' Branch, USSR A. S.; Tuva ASSR (Krzyl) Tuva Research Inst. of Language, Literature and History; Udmurt ASSR (Izhevsk) Udmurt Research Inst. of History, Economics, Language and Literature, Council of Ministers, Udmurt ASSR; Yakut ASSR (Yakutsk) Kayut Branch, Siberian Division, USSR A. S. The "Languages of the peoples of the North", mostly small Siberian tribes, are handled by the Institute of Linguistics of the USSR A. S.

The number of professional philologists in 1960 (including both language and literature, which are much more closely interrelated in the Soviet Union than in the West) was 21,234, of which 16,781 were in higher educational establishments and 4,291 were in research institutes. In 1950, the figures were respectively 13,601; 11,866; and 1,636. The 1960 figures for philologists who were holders of advanced degrees were 5,212 "candidates" and 323 "doctors". (Vysshee obr. v SSSR, 1961, p. 204; Nar. khoz. SSSR, 1960, p. 722, 784)

Fields under study

The major emphasis of Soviet linguistics is on development of Russian and the minority languages, in which linguists are called upon to help in establishing literary norms, grammar, orthographic rules, etc. However, modern foreign languages are also investigated (especially English, French, German, and Slavic and Finno-Ugrian languages) but also other languages throughout the world, including Maya, which is being decoded with computers.

Among fields under study in the last decade have been: grammar, especially

problems in the minority languages, but also theoretical work; "the internal laws of the development of a language"; dialectology, much material having been assembled for various languages and a vast dialect atlas of Russian now being published; lexicography, particularly in connection with the minority languages, with theoretical foundations developed by L. V. Shcherba; phonetics, heretofore somewhat limited, but now increasingly experimental, with projects to compile a unified phonetic transcription for Soviet languages and to develop machines accepting oral commands; theory of and standards for literary languages and pronunciation (orthoepy), tying in with "culture of speech"---correctness in usage for clarity, precision, purity and accuracy (considered linguistics by the Soviets); stylistics, particularly in regard to Russian, trying to break away from old-fashioned rhetoric and, more recently, applying mathematical methods (statistics, probabilities, etc.) to the language of the better authors; education in and history of linguistics.

The recent reorientations (Chapter I) have opened up new approaches in the comparative, structural and mathematical methods, to which much effort is now being directed, but it is too soon yet for major results. A crash program is under way to alleviate the severe shortage of linguists knowing mathematics. Work in mathematical linguistics is almost exclusively connected with machine translation and related fields. (Chapter IX) The sources examined for this report (which were very limited) did not reveal any indication that cybernetics was being consciously applied to language study, but more research would be required to settle this point.

Publications

In 1959, some 3,053 books and pamphlets were published in linguistics and literature, of which 765 were "scientific", 1,847, educational (1,256

for grade schools and 475 for higher education) 202, methodological, and 144 administrative. (Pechat' SSSR, 1959, insert)

The Soviet index of journal articles lists about 1,200 linguistic articles annually, but this index includes only those in Russian and also does not cover the transactions of most pedagogical institutes. The leading journals are: Voprosy iazykoznaniiia; Izvestiia Akademii nauk SSSR---Otdelenie literatury i iazyka; and Nauchnye doklady vysshei shkoly---Filologicheskie nauki. Each of the republic academies has journals in which linguistic articles are included, and many of the institutes publish transactions.

In 1961, 33 "doctor" and 259 "candidate" dissertation abstracts were published in philology, about half of which were in linguistics.

Bibliographical notes

Fairbanks, Gordon H. A study of structural linguistics in research and teaching in the Soviet Union, 1960; Akademiia nauk SSSR. Institut iazykoznaia. Bibliograficheskii ukazatel' literatury po iazykoznaniiu, 1958 ff.

VI. STUDY AND TEACHING

Study of foreign languages in grade schools

Following the 1957 educational reforms, the Soviet school system consists essentially of a universal 8-year school, supplemented by (a) a basically college-preparatory school of 3 grades part-time (enrollment, grades 1-8 plus 9-11 in 1960/61 was 36,186,000), (b) semiprofessional schools (2,060,000) or (c) vocational schools (1,113,000). (Nar. khoz. SSSR, 1960, p. 751) A foreign language normally starts in grade 5 (age 11) and continues to the end of (a) and (b) above. Some language training is given in (c).

The numbers of schools teaching foreign languages in 1958/59 and 1960/61,

respectively (in the 8-year school and (a) above) were: German, 64,600; 64,400; English, 20,600; 22,800; French, 7,600, 7,500; other languages, 30; 50; totals, excluding duplication for schools with more than one language, 78,000, 79,000 (rounded). Pupils studying languages were, respectively: German, 6,758,000, 8,259,000; English, 3,518,000, 4,530,000; French, 907,000, 1,049,000; other languages, 3,000, 8,000. (Ibid., 1959, p. 731; 1960, p. 755)

The totals for students just given were 95% and 94% of the grade 5-11 enrollment. (Ibid.) Among the schools in "other languages" are some in central Asia which, beginning in 1957, offer Soviet children instruction in Oriental languages such as Chinese, Hindu, Persian and Urdu.

Foreign language teachers in grades 5-7 (excluding duplications) in 1960/61 were (with educational qualifications shown in percentages as follows: university, teacher's institute, other): English, 20,000 (82.6%; 12.3%; 5.1%), French, 5,000 (77.7%, 15.4%, 6.9%), German, 38,000 (47.9%, 24.7%, 27.4%). For grades 8-11, the figures were: English, 9,000 (94.6%, 4.6%, 0.8%), French, 2,000 (93.5%, 4.9%, 1.6%), German, 13,000 (82.2%, 12.5%, 5.3%). (Ibid., 1960, p. 758)

Foreign languages were introduced into the general Soviet school system with the educational reforms of 1932. Until after Stalin's death, methodology was influenced by L. V. Shcherba's theories, tying mental concepts to one's own speech, and therefore maintaining that the best approach was by conscious study and translation of texts into one's own language, with an intensive theoretical study of grammar. Instruction was in Russian, emphasis on analysing texts. By graduation, the student was to know 4,000 words.

About 1956, this system was criticized as being too didactic, failing

to build a lasting vocabulary and neglecting conversation. After extensive discussion by teachers and administrators, new syllabi were issued for grades 5-8 by the RSFSR Ministry of Education for French, German and English in March, 1960, and for grades 9-11 in October, 1960. (Texts in Inostr. iazyki v shkole, 1960, no. 3 and 1961, no. 1) These syllabi seek to get away from learning by rote and to emphasize speaking, reading, and comprehension, though the main emphasis is still on translation. 800 words and phrases are to be learned in grades 5-8, and 700 more in 9-11; on graduation, the student should read simple texts with a dictionary at the rate of 1,500 characters per school hour (45 minutes). From 2 to 4 hours a week are spent on the language, depending on the grade. The total number of class hours, grades 5-11, is 726.

A program, starting in 1948 and 1949 in Moscow and Leningrad, involves certain schools teaching some non-language subjects in the foreign language. The language is started in the second grade, and results in 1253 hours of language study, plus 713 more in the other subjects.

In some schools, instruction is supplemented by clubs with language activities, correspondence with school children abroad, etc.

The most important recent development is a decree issued on May 27, 1961, by the USSR Council of Ministers, called "On Improvement in the Study of Foreign Languages", covering both school and university-level teaching. It said "The overwhelming majority of graduates ... have a poor command of foreign languages; their small vocabularies and their purely formal knowledge of grammar makes it impossible for them to translate foreign texts without a dictionary. Their conversational ability is especially poor.

Serious shortcomings exist in the training of foreign language instructors." It called for greater emphasis on (1) spoken language (for international contacts) and (2) vocabulary building (to read foreign technical literature).

As far as schools were concerned, the decree ordered (1) revision of syllabi and textbooks in the next 3-4 years to achieve the above goals; (2) a maximum of 25 in a class; (3) supplementary elective evening school classes; (4) teaching of non-language courses in foreign languages to be given in 700 regular schools by 1965 as well as in boarding schools; (5) audiovisual aids for all schools "within the next few years"; (6) retraining or removal of teachers with a poor command of the language; (7) optional foreign-language study in kindergartens and grades 1-4 at parents' expense; (8) reducing German study (see above) and increasing other languages, and introducing Spanish (previously not taught) and Asian languages; (9) increasing the production and import of foreign language educational and dramatic films; (10) production of foreign language records (regular and LP) and sound films, with texts; (11) increasing publication of dictionaries, phrase-books, books, pamphlets, and classic and modern literature in German, French, Spanish and English. (The last three items also apply to university-level instruction.)

Soviet authorities are now busy implementing this decree. Oral teaching has started in over 300 kindergartens in the RSFSR alone, with a vocabulary of up to 240 words. Boarding schools have introduced languages in grade 1. Experiments are being conducted and work is proceeding on revising the syllabi (which was planned anyway) and textbooks are being changed, though it was stated last summer that no adequate methodological guide for the 1960 syllabi had yet appeared. (Inostr. iazyki v shkole, 1962, no. 4, p. 3) A major controversy has developed among teachers, I. E. Anichkov proposing the

"direct method", emphasizing actual use, instruction conducted in the language, and attempts to make the pupil think in the language. (This had been tried unsuccessfully in the 1920's in the USSR.) He is opposed by the traditionalists, supporting the "conscious comparison" method. The RSFSR Ministry of Education is still of an open mind, willing to accept Anichkov's along with other methods, but finding so far that the claims have been bigger than the actual results. (Ibid., 1962, no. 3, p. 19)

Research on teaching is conducted in the RSFSR Academy of Pedagogical Sciences and in institutes in other republics (e. g., the Research Institute of Schools in the Moldavian SSR).

Russian in minority language schools

Students in schools with instruction in a minority language have to learn 3 languages, their own, Russian, and a foreign one. There is considerable variation in handling this extra load; in the RSFSR, generally the minority language and Russian start in the 1st grade, and the foreign language in the 9th (so that those leaving at the end of the 8th do not have any foreign language), but the pattern varies. Some schools extend the whole curriculum by one year, others have a "preparatory class" before the 1st grade.

A detailed account of this subject is given in Nicholas DeWitt's Education and Professional Employment in the USSR, 1961, p. 112-113.

Universities

In 1960, the USSR had 739 regular higher education establishments, of which 40 were universities, 192 were pedagogical institutes, and the remainder technical and other institutes. Enrollment was 2,396,000 in 1960/61, of which 1,156,000 was full-time, 245,000, evening and 995,000, correspondence.

A college entrance examination in a foreign language is normally required.

Specialization is much greater than in this country, with all courses planned around the major. Majors in languages offered by the universities are listed below; the course is 5 years, except for Oriental languages, where it is 6. (English, French, German and Russian are shown by initials.)

Azerbaijan State University (Baku), Azerbaijani, R., Arabic, Iranian langs., Turkish; Bashkir (Ufa), R., Bashkir, Tatar, E., G.; Belorussian (Minsk), Belorussian, R.; Central Asian (Tashkent), Uzbek, R., Indic langs., Uigur, Iranian-Afghan langs., Arabic; Chernovtsy, Ukrainian, R., G.; Dagestan (Makhach-Kala), R., Dagestan langs. (Avaric, Dargin, Lesgi, Kumyk); Dnepropetrovsk, Ukrainian, R.; Erevan, Armenian, R., Oriental langs., mathematical linguistics, E., C., F.; Far Eastern (Vladivostok), R., E.; Gorky, R.; Irkutsk, R., Buryat; Kabardian-Balkar (Nal'chik), R., Kabardian, Balkar, E., G.; Kazakh (Alma-Ata), Kazakh, R.; Kazan, R., Tatar; Kharkov, Ukrainian, R., E., G., F.; Kiev, Ukrainian, R., E., G., F.; Kirgiz (Franze) Kirgiz, R., E., G., F.; Kishinev, Moldavian, R.; Latvian (Riga) R., E., G.; Leningrad, R., Finno-Ugrian langs., Romance-Germanic langs., E., G., F., Spanish, Swedish, Norwegian, Danish, Italian, Rumanian, Hungarian, Albanian, Slavic langs., Polish, Czech, Bulgarian, Serbian, classic, Greek, mathematical linguistics, Chinese, Korean, Japanese, Indic langs., Iranian langs., Turkic langs., Arabic langs., African studies, Assyriology, Tibetan langs., Mongolian langs., Semitology; L'vov, Ukrainian, R., Slavic langs., Polish, Czech, Classic, Greek, Latin, E., G., F.; Mordovian (Sarensk), R., Mordovian, E., G.; Moscow, R., Romance-Germanic langs., E., G., F., classic, Greek, Latin (also, in its Institute of Oriental Languages: Chinese, Indonesian langs., Indic langs., Vietnamese langs., Arabic, African langs., Persian, Turkish, Japanese);

Odessa, R., Ukrainian, E., G., F., Perm, R., Romance-Germanic langs., E., G.; Petrozavodsk, R.; Saratov, R.; Tajik (Dushanbe) Tajik, R., Arabic, Iranian langs.; Tartu, Estonian, R., Romance-Germanic langs.; Tbilisi, Georgian, R., Iranian langs., Turkish, Semitology, Armenian, Caucasian studies, E., G., F.; Tomsk, R.; Turkmen (Ashkhabad) Turkmen, R., E., G.; Tomsk, R.; Ural (Sverdlovsk) R.; Uzbek (Samarkand) Uzbek, R., E.; Uzhgorod, Ukrainian, R.; Vilnius, Lithuanian, R., Romance-Germanic langs., E., G., F.; Voronezh, R.; Yakutsk, R., Yakut. No language major is given in Novosibirsk. (Spravochnik dlia postup. v VUZ, 1961)

Those not majoring in languages have to study a language, supposedly the same as studied in school (though in practice, many switch from German---the chief language in schools---to English, resulting in knowing neither well). The course has been 4 years (240-270 hours), but with the last two years having optional classes (in practice, none) with translations to be handed in and tests passed. The sole aim was translation ability, being able to read 2,000-2,500 characters an hour.

The May, 1961, decree called for improving foreign-language instruction in university-level institutions by (1) making class attendance in the 3rd and 4th years mandatory, with a total of 240 hours; (2) providing elective courses; (3) expanding extracurricular language activities; (4) eliminating overloading of instructors; and (5) establishing 2-year advanced courses for training university-level foreign language instructors. It also called for improvement in universities and pedagogical institutes of teacher training for schools by: (1) revision of curricula, syllabi and textbooks; (2) increasing practice teaching and language-practice classes; (3) increasing the use of audiovisual aids; (4) training teachers in non-language majors

to conduct classes in foreign languages, lengthening their course one year if necessary; and (5) training such teachers in classes of 7-10 persons.

Supporting activities for foreign languages in universities may include language clubs, foreign films and discussions of them, tapes, receiving foreign visitors, evenings devoted to talks in the languages, lectures by professors in the languages, amateur performances, publications of bulletins in the languages, making translations, and subscriptions to the Daily Worker, Neues Deutschland and Humanite.

In 1960, "methodological unions of foreign language teachers" were set up in major university centers to share experience, especially with audio-visual aids.

Pedagogical institutes

Most pedagogical institutes train teachers of Russian and many provide courses in foreign or minority languages. However, eight of them are called "pedagogical institutes of foreign languages", located at Moscow, Gorky, Gorlovka, Irkutsk, Kiev, Minsk, Tashkent, and Tbilisi. (Ibid.; this list is of 1960; a 1962 reference has been found to an additional one at Piatigorsk.) Most of them teach English, French and German. (See also Chapter X)

The leading one in this group is the First Moscow Pedagogical Institute of Foreign Languages (12,600 students), the only one listed as having an "Interpreters' and Translators' Department", teaching English, French, German, Italian and Spanish; it also has a regular "Pedagogical Department". It is a leading research center, with laboratories for (1) experimental phonetics and speech psychology, (2) oral speech, and (3) machine translation.

Graduate study

Graduate study is offered in philology at certain educational and

research establishments. In 1960, there were 1,471 graduate students in philology (about half writing theses in linguistics), of whom 1,067 were in educational establishments. In 1950, the numbers were greater, 1,980 and 1,457, respectively. (Vysshee obr. v SSSR, 1961, p. 222)

Other schools

The Institute of International Relations, Moscow, under the USSR Ministry of Foreign Affairs, trains diplomatic personnel. It has an extensive language program and also publishes on linguistics and language teaching.

The Military Institute of Foreign Languages is occasionally mentioned in the Soviet press; its transactions have included articles on English, Danish, German, Persian, Afghan, Arabic, Turkish and Japanese. (Vopr. iaz., 1955, no. 1, p. 129) The armed forces train "military interpreters"; there are language courses for officers (particularly English), and languages are taught in intermediate and higher military schools. (Spazhev, IU. Kurs vcennogo perevoda, 1962)

Numerous opportunities for foreign language study are offered to Soviet citizens. Higher educational institutions and the public school system provide classes and correspondence courses (with regular visits to a center) for adults. The 1959 decree ordered an expansion in the system, with classes limited to 20 persons. "These are extremely popular and the number of applicants exceeds available places many times over."

Chapters of engineering societies frequently have "circles for foreign language study" to train engineers and technicians to read foreign literature in their fields. Training is also provided by government-sponsored social clubs and other organizations.

Radio courses in English and German were started in the Ukraine in 1959

and in English in the Uzbek SSR in 1960. In Lithuania, a television course in English was inaugurated in 1960/61. However, such progress has been slow, and the 1961 decree has called for expansion of such courses.

No figures for the total number of persons studying foreign languages in the USSR have been located, but a rough preliminary estimate (perhaps a little high, and subject to refinement by further research) may be 20,000,000, divided as follows: 14,000,000 in grades 5-11; 2,000,000 in specialized secondary schools; 2,000,000 in higher education, and 2,000,000 in all other forms.

Audiovisual aids

In 1950, the USSR Ministry of Higher Education prescribed linguaphones and sound films in higher educational establishments, and in 1958 the RSFSR Ministry of Education required pedagogical institutes to install recording laboratories. The basic purpose was to have the student hear recordings and then make his own. Some institutes, like the Moscow State Pedagogical Institute named for V. I. Lenin, have elaborate set-ups with outlets in classrooms.

Records illustrating textbook exercises and tape recordings to perfect pronunciation were introduced into classrooms some years ago. Records are also available for home study; some are reproductions manufactured in the USSR of those issued by the Linguaphone Institute. (Knizhnaia letopis', 1962, no. 37448)

Visual aids include slides with pictures and sentences. The Gorky Pedagogical Institute of Foreign Languages is preparing such slides, synchronized with records or tapes. Two kinds of motion pictures are used in language instruction, (1) documentaries, newsreels and educational films

with foreign sound tracks, and (2) special foreign language teaching films for schools.

Bibliographical notes

In English, DeWitt (cited above) is a major source; also, Office of Education publications. The 1961 decree is summarized in Current Digest of the Soviet Press, June 21, 1961. Marianna Poltaratzki has prepared a survey on cards of Soviet foreign language teaching. Among numerous journal articles: Audiovisual instructor, May, 1962; Education Forum, Mar., Nov., 1959; Modern Language Journal, Dec., 1958, Feb., Mar., 1959, Jan., Feb., Nov., 1962; School Life, Oct. 1960; School Review, autumn, 1960, autumn, 1961; Soviet Education, passim. Bereday, G., The politics of Soviet education, p. 117-131.

In Russian, numerous textbooks, teachers' guides, etc., are available at the Library of Congress. The principal journals are: Biulleten' Ministerstva vysshego i srednego spetsial'nogo obrazoveniia, Vestnik vysshei shkoly, Inostrannye iazyki v shkole, Russkii iazyk v shkole, Russkii iazyk v national'noi shkole.

VII. PUBLICATIONS

Publication of books, journals and newspapers in the Soviet Union in Russian, minority languages and foreign languages

The Soviet Union has 320 publishing houses, of which about 70 are central (Moscow and Leningrad) and about 250 are local, organized in a hierarchy on the same general principles as the research institutes (Chapter V). Publishers in minority areas specialize in the local languages.

Newspapers are organized in a similar system: central newspapers in Moscow; republic newspapers in republic capitals (usually one general paper

in Russian and another in the local language); and newspapers in province and district centers, many being in minority languages.

The major dictionary publisher is the Publishing House of Foreign and Nationality Dictionaries, which publishes 30 or 40 dictionaries a year, playing a major role in their compilation.

Besides the books of publishing houses, many publications, often ephemeral, are issued by organizations such as government agencies, research institutions, technical information bureaus, etc. Such publications, if over four pages long, are included in the statistics given in the next table.

The table lists population and publication figures for all languages now used in publishing in the USSR. Column (A) gives the language and language group; (B) the population of the nationality in the 1959 census, in thousands; (C) the percentage of the preceding giving the language of the nationality as their native tongue; (D), (E), and (F) book titles (including pamphlets) for 1958, 1959 and 1960; (G) number of copies of the books for 1960, in thousands; (H) number of books in 1960 which were translations; and (I) serial titles for 1960; and (J) newspaper titles for 1960.

(A)	(B)	(C)	(D)	(E)	(F)	(G)	(H)	(I)	(J)
RUSSIAN I	114,114	99.8	45,312	49,333	55,337	1,016,356	2,870	2,868	4,665
MINORITY LANGS.	NA	NA	16,628	18,119	18,709	187,515	6,294	840	2,121
Abaza C	20	94.8	15	26	14	13	11	-	1
Abkhaz C	65	95.0	52	46	45	63	10	2	1
Adygei C	80	96.8	44	48	45	60	24	1	1
Aisor Se	22	64.3	2	--	--	--	--	--	--
Alkhvakh C	NA	NA	--	--	--	--	--	--	1
Altai (Oirat) T	45	88.5	45	72	78	94	49	2	2

(A)	(B)	(C)	(D)	(E)	(F)	(G)	(H)	(I)	(J)
Armenian I	2,787	89.9	951	1,017	1,067	5,708	323	46	70
Avaric C	270	97.2	39	50	39	139	18	2	13
Azerbaijani T	2,940	97.6	780	853	1,010	8,462	324	62	84
Balkar T	42	97.0	40	52	34	28	19	2	1
Bashkir T	989	61.9	163	213	198	836	76	6	22
Belorussian I	7,913	84.2	481	573	490	7,372	104	25	154
Buryat M	253	94.9	66	67	64	193	17	3	3
Chechen C	419	98.8	51	47	48	178	23	2	7
Chukot P	11.7	93.9	26	18	13	16	8	1	1
Chuvash T	1,470	90.8	205	232	232	1,198	114	5	29
Crimean Tatar T	NA	NA	1	1	--	--	--	--	1
Dargin C	158	98.6	46	32	33	84	18	2	6
Dungan Ch	22	95.1	7	10	10	13	4	--	1
Eskimo E	1.1	84.0	--	1	2	2	--	--	--
Estonian F	989	95.2	942	934	1,191	7,644	381	100	43
Even (Lamut) Tu	9.1	81.4	2	7	4	4	1	--	--
Evenki (Tungus) Tu	24.7	55.9	8	6	7	6	2	--	--
Finnish F	93	59.5	47	58	38	125	35	2	2
Gagauzi T	124	94.0	6	7	10	59	2	--	1
Georgian C	2,692	98.6	1,432	1,594	1,889	9,695	462	94	95
Ingush C	106	97.9	28	41	48	74	18	2	2
Kabardian C	204	97.9	55	73	65	171	25	2	2
Kalmuck M	106	91.0	28	30	52	116	22	1	1
Karachay (Cherk.) T	111	93.9	22	35	33	49	18	--	2
Kara-Kalpak T	173	95.0	121	145	162	555	92	3	4

(A)	(B)	(C)	(D)	(E)	(F)	(G)	(H)	(I)	(J)
Kazakh T	3,622	98.4	640	769	577	7,967	295	17	144
Khakass T	57	86.0	22	23	32	50	14	1	1
Kirgiz T	969	98.7	457	330	474	2,965	270	14	46
Kumyk T	135	98.0	48	45	42	94	22	2	3
Kurdish I	59	89.9	5	7	7	6	1	1	1
Lak C	64	95.8	36	31	31	52	14	2	3
Latvian I	1,400	95.1	1,074	1,258	1,513	9,929	491	65	58
Lesgi C	223	92.7	39	43	36	67	20	2	7
Lithuanian I	2,326	97.8	1,369	1,693	1,773	11,367	585	63	82
Mari F	504	95.1	81	100	84	273	25	3	16
Moldavian I	2,214	95.2	490	412	409	3,914	247	20	47
Mordovian (Erzya)	1,285	78.1	{ 44	53	34	72	14	1	1
Mordovian (Moksha) F			{ 43	50	42	92	16	2	1
Nanay Tu	8	86.3	7	2	1	2	---	---	---
Nenets S	23	84.7	4	10	10	10	3	---	1
Nogai T	38.6	90.0	13	29	12	7	8	---	2
Ossetic I	413	89.1	116	126	88	173	33	5	2
Ostyak (Khanty) F	19.4	77.0	---	2	2	2	1	---	1
Permyak F	431	{ 88.7	22	24	17	58	9	---	---
Syrenian (Komi)			60	74	37	124	15	2	10
Tabasaran C	34.7	99.2	19	19	19	25	2	---	2
Tajik I	1,397	98.1	364	442	477	2,723	301	21	32
Tat I	11	70.8	---	1	2	2	---	---	---

(A)	(B)	(C)	(D)	(E)	(F)	(G)	(H)	(I)	(J)
Tatar T	4,968	92.1	317	353	395	4,086	155	12	78
Turkmen T	1,002	98.9	418	443	397	2,694	252	14	47
Tuva T	100	99.1	61	69	68	179	45	1	2
Udmurt F	625	89.1	59	70	48	205	24	2	25
Uigur T	95	85.0	134	99	99	275	77	---	3
Ukrainian I	37,253	87.7	3,980	4,050	3,852	80,580	482	193	814
Ulcha Tu	2.1	84.9	---	1	---	---	---	---	---
Uzbek T	6,015	98.4	810	911	1,060	15,524	608	30	112
Vogul (Mansi) F	6.4	59.2	6	2	3	7	---	---	---
Yakut T	237	97.5	122	133	153	598	65	4	29
Yiddish I (Jews)	2,268	21.1	---	2	3	38	---	---	1
2 or more langs. --	---	---	61	84	51	398	---	---	---
FOREIGN LANGUAGES--	---	---	1,701	1,620	2,018	35,776	1,331	53	18
Albanian	5.3	79.0	1	1	---	---	---	---	---
Amharic	---	---	---	---	2	26	1	---	---
Arabic	8	34.1	29	36	37	334	33	2	---
Bengali	---	---	21	30	30	117	30	---	---
Bulgarian	324	79.4	1	2	---	---	---	---	1
Burmese	---	---	2	3	2	2	2	---	---
Chinese	26	69.3	23	9	3	204	1	3	---
Czech	25	49.0	5	7	22	552	22	---	---
Danish	---	---	---	---	3	31	3	---	---
Dutch	---	---	5	9	2	10	2	---	---
English	---	---	649	521	844	11,980	633	11	1

(A)	(B)	(C)	(D)	(E)	(F)	(G)	(H)	(I)	(J)
Esperanto	---	---	---	1	---	---	---	---	---
French	1.0	56.4	256	224	218	2,552	121	8	1
German	1,620	75.0	238	234	273	13,846	113	7	2
Hebrew	---	---	---	1	---	---	---	---	---
Hindu	---	---	36	39	31	141	31	2	---
Hungarian	155	97.2	47	56	61	512	49	4	5
Indonesian	---	---	1	2	2	60	2	---	---
Italian	1.2	32.6	1	2	1	1	1	---	---
Japanese	1.0	69.5	3	3	1	2	---	2	---
Khmer	---	---	---	---	1	1	---	---	---
Korean	314	79.3	55	69	52	720	48	2	2
Latin	---	---	41	44	53	56	---	---	---
Mongolian	1.8	86.6	---	1	---	---	---	---	---
Norwegian	---	---	---	---	3	70	3	---	---
Persian	21	44.7	10	18	3	8	2	---	---
Polish	1,380	45.2	73	44	60	232	48	2	6
Rumanian	106	83.3	7	2	6	75	3	---	---
Serbo-Cr. (Yugos.)	5	66.6	1	4	1	40	1	1	---
Singhalese	---	---	1	1	1	15	1	---	---
Slovak	15	61.2	---	3	1	50	1	---	---
Spanish	2.4	67.8	65	83	88	777	87	7	---
Swedish	---	---	8	17	13	135	13	---	---
Telegu	---	---	1	---	---	---	---	---	---
Tamil	---	---	2	2	9	118	9	---	---

(A)	(B)	(C)	(D)	(E)	(F)	(G)	(H)	(I)	(J)
Turkish	35	82.2	1	---	1	100	1	---	---
Urdu	---	---	11	27	19	49	19	2	---
Vietnamese	0.8	99.3	1	5	10	106	10	---	---
2 or more langs.	---	---	106	120	165	2,884	40	---	---
GRAND TOTALS	208,827	94.3	63,641	69,072	76,064	1,239,647	10,405	3,761	6,804

Note: In the census, 124,100,000 gave Russian as their native tongue, of them 113,900,000 were Russians and 10,200,000 were of other nationalities.

Sources: Narodnoe khoziaistvo SSSR, 1960, p. 14-16; Pechat' SSSR, 1958-60.

Language groups are indicated as follows: C - Caucasian; Ch - Chinese; E - Eskimo; F - Finno-Ugrian; I - Indo-European; M - Mongolian; P - Paleasiatic; S - Samoyedic; Se - Semitic; T - Turko-Tateric; Tu - Tungusic.

Bibliographical notes

Gorokhoff, Boris I. Publishing in the USSR, 1959 (including a table of which the above is a continuation); Book publishing in the USSR, report of the delegation of American book publishers to the Soviet Union, issued by the American Book Publishers Council, Inc., and the American Textbook Publishers Institute, Inc., New York, 1963. Comprehensive statistics are given in Pechat' SSSR, issued annually; it includes lists of publishers.

VIII. TRANSLATIONS

Translations of books

Translations represent a substantial part of the Soviet publication program (cf. Chapter VII) and UNESCO figures indicate that more are published in the USSR than in any other nation.

Translations may be released by nearly any Soviet publisher. Central ones covering special fields include translations of foreign books in their lists, while local provincial publishers include translations into Russian of foreign literary works under a program coordinated in Moscow. However, the major translation publisher is the Publishing House of Foreign Literature in Moscow, which in 1961 released 359 titles in 6,891,000 copies.

About 60% of published Soviet translations, however, are into minority languages; important government or Party statements or major political speeches are usually published in forty or fifty minority languages within a few weeks of their release. Such translations are issued by the minority language publishers in the publishing network. (Chapter VII)

Translations into foreign languages are the specialty of the Publishing House of Literature in Foreign Languages, at Moscow, which, in 1961, put out 564 titles in 11,846,000 copies, mostly for export, and chiefly into English, French, German and Spanish, although other languages are included. Heretofore there has been only one printing plant in the USSR specifically geared for printing books in foreign languages---"Iskra Revoliutsii" in Moscow. However, a new plant was scheduled to be opened in 1962 at Kryukov (Moscow Province) with an annual capacity of about 50,000,000 copies of books and pamphlets. (Nauchno-tekhnicheskie obshchestva, 1959, no. 4, p. 33)

Summary of translation program in the USSR

	<u>1956</u>	<u>1957</u>	<u>1958</u>	<u>1959</u>	<u>1960</u>	<u>1961</u>
Total published translations*	9,515	8,814	9,559	9,965	10,405	9,819
Into Russian	1,883	2,200	2,577	2,744	2,780	2,480
From minority languages	709	857	1,125	1,072	950	919
From foreign languages	1,174	1,343	1,452	1,672	1,830	1,561
Into minority languages	6,639	5,601	5,904	6,252	6,294	6,181
From Russian	6,010	4,890	5,007	5,282	5,329	5,234
From minority languages	232	256	223	291	331	396
From foreign languages	397	455	674	719	634	551
Into foreign languages	993	1,013	1,078	959	1,331	1,158
From Russian	933	942	951	849	1,209	1,038
From minority languages	47	52	77	81	88)	120
From foreign languages	13	19	50	29	34)	

* * * * *

Into Russian, minority and
other foreign languages

From all foreign languages	1,584	1,817	2,176	2,520	2,498	2,154
From Chinese	86	103	139	220	111	72
From English	485	515	559	648	835	737
From French	241	239	231	235	251	201
From German	212	259	351	374	398	315
From other languages	560	701	896	943	903	829

Note: For translations into individual languages in 1960, see table in Chapter VII, column (H).

* i.e., books and pamphlets.

Translators have a high standing in the Soviet Union. They can copy-right their work and are paid generously according to the government-established scales. Special provisions are included in the copyright laws to protect writers in minority languages.

Journals translated on a cover-to-cover basis

The following foreign journals are being translated into Russian on a cover-to-cover basis (presumably, however, with some omissions) as of 1963, by the Publishing House of Foreign Literature:

Belgium: Monthly Bulletin of the International Railway Congress Association and Electric Traction on the Railways.

France: L'architecture d'aujourd'hui.

Germany (West): "Gluckauf; Stahl und Eisen; Zentralblatt für Industriebau."

Great Britain: Building Materials; Farm Mechanization; Shipbuilder and Marine Engineer; Textile Manufacturer.

United States: Agricultural Engineering; ARS Journal; Automotive Industries; Civil Engineering; Construction Methods and Equipment; Electronics; Food Engineering; Journal of Applied Mechanics; Journal of Basic Engineering; Journal of Engineering for Power; Journal of Engineering for Industry; Journal of Heat Transfer; Machinery; Petroleum Engineer; Power Apparatus and Systems; Proceedings of the Institute of Radio Engineers; Review of Scientific Instruments; Transactions of ASME (5 series). They are issued by the Publishing House of Foreign Literature. (Katalog inostrannykh zhurnalov i gazet, 1963, Moscow)

Several foreign journals, such as the UNESCO Bulletin for Libraries, are published in Russian editions within the Soviet Union.

Certain Soviet newspapers and magazine are published primarily for export. These include four newspapers in Moscow (English, French, German and Spanish); Contemporary Woman (2 languages); Culture and Life (5), International Affairs (3); New Times (5); Soviet Woman (8); Soviet Union (14); Soviet Literature (4) and Oeuvres et opinions (in French). This program is supplemented by journals and bulletins issued by Soviet embassies throughout the world.

Other translation activities

Express-information, issued in 61 subject series by the All-Union Institute of Scientific and Technical Information (VINITI) consists of pamphlets, each containing a translation of a key article from foreign scientific or technical literature. Several journals, consisting of translations and reviews of non-Soviet literature, are issued by the Publishing House of Foreign Literature. Translations are printed or mimeographed by numerous other organizations, including technical information bureaus, libraries, the All-Union Chamber of Commerce, etc. Unpublished translations are prepared on a large scale by organizations and individuals throughout the Soviet Union.

Reporting of translations

There appears to be no center to which translations are reported, as in the United States and Western Europe. The Soviet national bibliography, Knizhnaia letopis', lists printed and mimeographed translations over four pages in length, and certain organizations periodically issue lists of their own translations.

Publication of foreign materials untranslated

Since so many Soviet scientists and engineers know foreign languages, many foreign scientific and technical journals are reprinted by photo offset in the original languages and sold on subscription within the Soviet Union. A list of these is available; they include 141 American, 2 Austrian, 64 British, 3 Canadian, 4 Dutch, 24 French, 61 German (West), 3 Japanese and 3 Swiss journals. (Katalog inostrannykh zhurnalov i gazet, 1963, Moscow)

Some books and pamphlets are similarly reprinted.

Bibliographical notes

Journals intended for export, as well as such titles as Express-Information, are described, among others, in the annual Periodicals of the USSR, published in Moscow and distributed free by American dealers in Soviet publications.

IX. MECHANICAL TRANSLATION

Nature of research and basic trends

The first patent in mechanical translation in the Soviet Union was issued in 1933 to P. Smirnov-Troianovskii (d. 1950), but extensive work was undertaken at the end of 1954 with the advent of electronic computers. First efforts represented a head-on attack on the problem with little theoretical work; algorithms, programs and glossaries were prepared with which short texts were actually translated by machine. However, realization of the complexity of the problem led, (1) to concentration on the standardization of algorithms and programs, and (2) into theoretical research, studying the nature of language. This has led to a number of studies, since about 1957, often making use of aspects of mathematical and structural linguistics, and some of the areas under study involve grammatical and conceptual relations among words, configurations and syntagms, sentence trees, semantics (especially in connection with multiple meanings of words) transform analysis, probability theory applications, etc. The work has branched out into semiotics (the science of symbols), information theory, and cybernetics.

Particular emphasis is given to the construction of an artificial intermediary language to be used as a stage in translating from any one natural language into any other. Ties are sought between this and a "retrieval language", into which scientific texts could be converted and used for computer retrieval. More remote goals visualized and for which future work is planned by the Soviets include automatic editing, abstracting and compilation of bibliographies, and perhaps, even more remotely, "talking" and "listening" machines with which human beings might converse.

In the meantime, only short, experimental translations have been run on computers, and no actual machine translation seems to be under way at present. Lack of available computer time is one factor, but it is felt that special machines, with large memories and omitting computer features, will have to be designed. Work is also progressing on reading machines and ones accepting oral instructions.

Certain quantitative features are impressive. Over 30 languages have been studied, the number of workers has been estimated at 450, as compared to 120 in the United States (New York Times, Feb. 3, 1960, p. 8, col. 5), and perhaps 500 papers have been published.

Organizations active in the field

Among the major organizations at work in this area are: Mathematical Institute named for V. I. Steklov of the USSR Academy of Sciences (I. Mel'chuk, O. Kulagina, T. Moloshnaia), starting in 1954, which has worked on French-Russian and English-Russian algorithms, language algorithms in general, and, more recently, an intermediary language based on language correspondences; Institute of Exact Mechanics and Computer Technology of the academy (originally D. Panov and I. Mukhin, later I. Bel'skaia, T. Nikolaeva, and others), first working on empirical routines and later concentrating on theoretical work; First State Moscow Pedagogical Institute of Foreign Languages, (V. Rozentsveig, I. Revzin, and others), active in organizing the Machine Translation Union and concerned mostly with theoretical work; Experimental Laboratory for Machine Translation at Leningrad University (N. Andreev) which has studied numerous languages, and is now concentrating on developing an intermediary language on a different basis from that in

Moscow, and a retrieval language, and on several other fields in structural linguistics; Leningrad Department of the Institute of Linguistics of the USSR Academy of Sciences (also N. Andreev), preparing models of languages using statistical methods; the Institute of Scientific Information of the academy (VINITI) participated in the early experiments, but withdrew from mechanical translation until 1961, when it resumed research; Institute of Mathematics of the Siberian Branch of the academy (A. Gladkii) working on a synthetic language for mathematical texts; Laboratory of Mathematical Linguistics of Kiev State University, on projects such as writing an algorithm for analysing inflections in Russian and an information language for mathematics; Institute of Electronics, Automation and Remote Control of the Academy of Sciences of the Georgian SSR (A. Eliashvili) on analysis of Georgian and a Russian-Georgian algorithm; Computer Center of the Academy of Sciences of the Armenian SSR, compiling automatic programs for translation algorithms, the Academy of Sciences of the Latvian SSR, etc.

Contributions have also been made by scholars at various institutes of the USSR Academy of Sciences, especially the Institute of Linguistics (I. Mel'chuk) and at a number of universities, including Moscow (V. Ivanov), Gorky, Petrozavodsk, and Vilnius.

Cybernetics and mechanical translation

The relationship envisaged by the Soviets between cybernetics and mechanical translation is indicated by the classification used in the Soviet abstract journal for mathematics. In 1962, cybernetics was subdivided there as follows: theory of control systems; theory of automatic control; information theory; theory of games and operations research; linear programming and mathematical economics; mathematical machines; mathematical

and cybernetic processes of biology and psychology; and mathematical problems of semiotics (the theory of symbols). Abstracts on mechanical translation are entered under the last, together with those on certain other subjects.

Bibliographical notes

Excellent coverage of Soviet work is provided by Foreign Developments in Machine Translation and Information Processing, a collection of translations issued periodically through the Office of Technical Services, U. S. Department of Commerce. Summaries of work in process are given in the National Science Foundation's Current Research and Development in Scientific Documentation. Review articles in English appear in Advances in Computers, vol. 1, 1960; Proceedings of the National Symposium on Machine Translation, 1961; Mechanical Translation, Dec. 1958; Modern Language Journal, April, 1962.

Russian sources include proceedings of conferences held in 1958, 1959, and 1961; transactions of institutes working in the field; the journal Voprosy iazykoznaniiia; and the following irregular periodicals: Mashinnyi perevod i prikladnaia lingvistika (Moscow) Mashinnyi perevod (Leningrad), and Problemy kibernetiki. Some monographs have been published, and material is sometimes included in works on cybernetics.

X. LANGUAGES AND FOREIGN POLICY

General considerations

Support for some of the facets of Soviet foreign policy is provided by parts of the language development program. The closer ties with foreign countries, culturally and otherwise, are cited in the 1961 decree revamping

foreign language instruction. (Chapter VI) A Soviet article in this connection emphasises the value of a speaking knowledge of foreign languages in receiving visitors in the USSR or in travelling abroad. (Vest. vysh. shk., 1962, no. 7, p. 30)

However, for ties with the east European countries, the emphasis appears to have been on the study of Russian in those countries, rather than the reverse.

For propaganda purposes, numerous books, journals (Chapters VII-VIII) and embassy publications are being issued in many languages. Soviet radio stations are broadcasting in a number of languages.

For military purposes, there is published evidence that foreign languages, especially English, are being studied extensively in the Soviet armed forces. (cf. p. 30)

Russian-language programs are being developed for foreign-language students in the USSR. (cf. below) Ties with foreign Communists are indicated by the publication of Russian grammars and textbooks for foreigners by the Higher Party School of the Soviet Communist Party's Central Committee. (e. g., Khromets, N. G. Spravochnik russkogo iazyka dlia inostrantsev, 1961)

To train interpreters for the United Nations, a Moscow Training Center has recently been opened jointly by the UN and the Soviets. (UN Review, Oct. 1962, p. 27-28)

Training of Technicians in foreign languages

The Soviet program for assistance to underdeveloped countries has created a demand for scientists, engineers and technicians knowing the languages of the areas. While the languages they normally study in technical

institutes - English, French or German - may be adequate in some countries (e. g., former British and French colonies in Africa), other languages may be needed elsewhere.

Western reports indicate that in some areas Soviet technicians are at work who know "exotic" local languages, while this is not true in other countries.

The First Moscow State Pedagogical Institute of Foreign Languages is training non-philologist specialists, who have completed their education, in English, French, German, Italian and Spanish. "The Pedagogic Institute in Tashkent ... is gaining in importance as it runs not only the usual 5 or 6 year courses for teachers, translators, etc., but since 1959 also has 'sandwich' courses in Asiatic languages---particularly of Southeast Asia---for engineers, technicians and specialists who will in due course be sent to developing countries. (Russian Technical Literature, July, 1962, p. 29)

Textbooks

While numerous textbooks, dictionaries, phrase books, etc., are being published in the Soviet Union, a few particular items may be of interest.

In establishing the Bombay Technological Institute for the Indian government, the USSR undertook to provide English translations of Soviet technical textbooks for the use of the Indian students. (L. Fituni. Problemy pomoshchi ... 1961, p. 109) Possibly with such programs in mind, the Soviets have embarked on a program of translating over the next five years at least 400 Russian college texts into English, French, German and Spanish for export. (Book Publishing in the USSR, 1963, p. 89)

While numerous texts to learn Russian have been published for foreign

students in the USSR, particular activity has been shown by the Peoples' Friendship University named for Patrice Lumumba, with 597 (1961) students from underdeveloped countries. It has issued a number of such texts, chiefly in English, French and Spanish, but also in languages such as Arabic.

Bibliographical notes

Western journal articles, government publications, etc., on the Soviet technical aid program may throw light on the language factors involved.

POSTSCRIPT

The above report is designed to be a preliminary review of Soviet language development, for use mainly in determining the need for, and the nature of, further research. It was compiled over five weekends chiefly on the basis of standard Russian reference works and key articles in two leading Soviet journals; thus, it is not a definitive study and findings may be revised after further research. No effort was made to achieve completeness in the bibliographical references. However, it is hoped that this report may serve as an aid in further research in an important and interesting field.